

and its exports of many of these articles in a manufactured state. In 1874 the arrivals were 3407 vessels, with a register of 990,101 tons,—650 belonging to Bremen, 418 to Britain, and 317 to Holland. Much of the shipping trade of the city is conducted at Bremerhaven and Vegesack, because vessels drawing more than 7 feet cannot get up to the town. Among the societies of the city are a nautical association, the German Life-Boat Institution, and the chamber of commerce.

As early as 788 Bremen, then a mere fishing village, was made the seat of a bishopric by Charlemagne; and in 858 it was raised to an archbishopric by Ansgarius, archbishop of Hamburg, who had been driven from that city by the Normans about 847. The importance of Bremen soon increased; and its citizens took an active share in the more remarkable movements of the time, such as the Crusades, the establishment of the Teutonic Order, and the founding of Riga. In 1283 they joined the Hanseatic League, and in 1289 formed a treaty with Gislebert, their archbishop, by which he agreed to confine himself to the spiritual affairs of his diocese, leaving secular concerns to the civic authorities. In the course of the 14th century, there was much intestine conflict in the city, and in the 15th it had to defend its commerce against the pertinacious hostility of the Frisian pirates, but from both perils it issued with increased vigour. About 1522 the archbishop and most of the inhabitants declared for Protestantism, in defence of which they took a foremost part, and had on various occasions to suffer severely. The city was twice besieged by the imperial forces in 1547. At the peace of Westphalia (1648) the archiepiscopal diocese was secularized and raised to a grand duchy, which was ceded to Sweden. In a war between Denmark and Sweden in 1712 it was conquered by the former, and in 1715 it was purchased from that power by Hanover along with the duchy of Verden. The transfer was confirmed by the diet of 1732, and the district now forms part of the Hanoverian province of Stade. The city of Bremen had meanwhile had its civic rights more or less thoroughly recognized during these vicissitudes. In 1806 it was taken by the French, and from 1810 to 1813 it was the capital of the department of the Mouths of the Weser. Restored to independence by the congress of Vienna in 1815, it subsequently became a member of the German confederation, and in 1867 joined the new confederation of the North German States, with which it was merged in the new German empire. It has now one vote in the federal council, and sends a representative to the imperial diet. The freedom of its port is secured, and in compensation it pays an *aversum* of 250,000 thalers to the customs union.

The territory of Bremen has an area of 63,400 English acres, about 5000 acres being occupied by the towns of Bremen, Bremerhaven, and Vegesack, and about 1200 by the bed of the Weser. Of the remaining area about two-fifths are arable land and two-fifths meadowland, the extent of woodland being very slight. The soil is for the most part sandy, though here and there marshes or bogs occur. Of the population, which in 1873 was 130,871, 88,146 were inhabitants of Bremen the city, 12,129 of Bremerhaven, and 3843 of Vegesack, and 26,753 of the rural districts. With the exception of about 2800 Roman Catholics and 271 Jews, the inhabitants are Lutherans or Calvinists of various denominations. According to the constitution of 1849, modified by various enactments in 1854, the senate, which is the executive power, is composed of eighteen members, elected by the "burghership" on presentation by the senate. Of these, ten at least must be lawyers, and five merchants; and two of the number are nominated by their colleagues as burgomasters, who preside in succession, and hold office for four years, one retiring every two years. The burghership consists of 150 (formerly 300) representatives chosen from the citizens for six years. Sixteen are elected by those of the inhabitants of the city who have attended a university, 48 by the merchants, 24 by the manufacturers and artisans, and 30 by the other citizens; of the remaining representatives 6 are furnished by Bremerhaven, 6 by Vegesack, and 20 by the country population. The revenue in 1873 amounted to £545,531, and the expenditure was £1,094,222, so that the deficit was £548,691. The total debt at the end of the year was £3,676,733. The territory and city are still outside the limits of the customs union. In the whole state there were in 1870 forty-five public and thirteen private schools, with a total attendance of 12,794.

BREMER, FREDRIKA, the most celebrated Swedish novelist, was born near Abö, in Finland, on the 17th August 1801. Her father, a descendant of an old German family, was a wealthy iron master and merchant. He left Finland when Fredrika was three years old, and after a year's residence in Stockholm, purchased an estate at Arsta, about 20 miles from the capital. There, with occasional visits to Stockholm and to a neighbouring estate, which

belonged for a time to her father, Fredrika passed her time till 1820. The education to which she and her sisters were subjected was unusually strict; their parents, especially their father, were harsh and took little or no pains to understand the temperaments of the children. The constant repression, the sense of being misunderstood, and the apparent aimlessness of such an existence told with greatest force upon Fredrika, who was of a quick and eager disposition, fond of praise and conscious of powers which it seemed to her must lie for ever unused. She felt as if her life were being wasted; there was nothing on which she could expend her energy; no career was open to a woman. Her health began to give way; and in 1821 the whole family set out for the south of France. They travelled slowly by way of Germany and Switzerland, and returned by Paris and the Netherlands. It was shortly after this time that Miss Bremer became acquainted with Schiller's poetical works, which made a very deep impression on her. Her home life, however, was still unsatisfying, and in her passionate longing for some work to which she could devote herself, and through which she might do some good in the world, she for a time resolved to join one of the Stockholm hospitals as a nurse. This plan was given up on the entreaty of her sister. Meanwhile, she had found relief for her pent-up feelings in writing, or rather in continuing to write, for she had been an authoress of a sort from the age of eight. In 1828 she determined to attempt publication, and succeeded in finding a publisher. The first volume of her *Sketches of Every Day Life* (1828) at once attracted attention, and the second volume (1831), containing one of her best tales, *The H—— Family*, gave decisive evidence that a real novelist had been found in Sweden. The Swedish Academy awarded her their smaller gold medal, and the fortunate authoress became famous. From this time Miss Bremer had found her vocation. Her father had died in 1830, and her life was thereafter regulated in accordance with her own wishes and tastes. She lived for some years in Norway with a friend, after whose death she resolved to gratify a long-repressed desire for travel. In the autumn of 1849 she set out for America, and after spending nearly two years there returned through England. The admirable translations of her works by Mary Howitt, which had been received with even greater eagerness in America and England than in Sweden, secured for her a warm and kindly reception. Her impressions of America, *Homes in the New World*, were published in 1853, and were at once translated into English. After her return Miss Bremer devoted herself to her great scheme for the advancement or, one may say, emancipation of women. On this subject she had thought deeply, and her own experience was of value to her in shaping her ideas of what the education and function of woman should be. "She wished," says her sister, "that women should, like men and together with them, be allowed to study at the elementary schools and academies, in order to gain an opportunity of obtaining suitable employments and situations in the service of the state. . . . She said she was firmly convinced that women could acquire all kinds of knowledge just as well as men, that they ought to stand on the same level, and that they ought to prepare themselves in the public schools and universities to become lecturers, professors, judges, physicians, and functionaries in the service of the state" (*Life*, &c., pp. 81-2). Some of these views were expounded in her later novels, *Hertha* and *Father and Daughter*, which naturally were not so successful as her other works. Miss Bremer not only wrote of her plans, but endeavoured, so far as she could, to induce women to devote themselves to some kind of work. She organized a society of ladies in Stockholm for the purpose of visiting the prisons, and during the cholera raised a society the object of which

was the care of children left orphans by the epidemic. In 1856 she again travelled, and spent five years on the Continent and in Palestine. Her reminiscences of these countries have all been translated into English. On her return she settled at Arsta, where, with the exception of a visit to Germany, she spent the remaining years of her life. She died on the 31st December 1865. Miss Bremer has been called, and with justice, the Miss Austen of Sweden. Her novels have the purity, simplicity, and love of domestic life, which are characteristic of the English writer. She is, however, inferior to Miss Austen in construction of plot and in delineation of character. Some of her best works show slight traces of overstrained sentiment, and the situations are occasionally somewhat melo-dramatic. *The Neighbours* is the most popular and the best of her tales; it is an admirable picture of Swedish home life, showing at times the quiet humour which is more prominent in *The H—— Family*. All the works have been translated into German and English, and the greater number of them into French. In America they have circulated very widely, and have been extremely popular.

See *Life, Letters, and Posthumous Works of F. Bremer*, by her sister, translated by Milow, London, 1868.

BREMERHAVEN, a seaport town belonging to the free city of Bremen, on the right bank of the Weser at the mouth of the Geest, in 53° 32' N. lat. and 8° 34' E. long. It is built on a piece of ground surrendered to Bremen in 1827 by Hanover, and increased by treaty with Prussia in 1869. The port was opened in 1830, and there are now, besides an excellent harbour, four large wet docks, five dry docks, hydraulic cranes, and lines of railway running along the quays. The entrance is free from ice nearly all the year round, even when the other ports of the neighbouring coasts are closed, and vessels drawing 22 feet can enter safely. The town is rapidly extending and will soon be united with Geestemünde. Among its public buildings the most remarkable is the great hospitiary for emigrants, erected in 1830, which can accommodate 2500 persons. The Hanoverian fort and batteries, which formerly protected the town, have been removed, and their place is supplied by similar works farther down. The population, which in 1850 was only 3500, amounted in 1871 to 10,596.

BRENNUS, the name given in history to two kings or chiefs of the Celtic Gauls, probably not an appellative, but a title, the Cymric "*brenhin*" = king. (Dr Pritchard thinks it more probably the equivalent of the Welsh proper name "*Bran*.") The first Brennus crossed the Apennines into Italy, at the head of 70,000 of the tribe of Gauls known as Senones, and ravaged Etruria, 391 B.C. Some envoys from Rome, sent to watch their movements, were said to have taken an active part in a skirmish before the walls of Clusium; and the Gauls, failing to obtain the surrender of these men, marched at once for Rome. A Roman army of about 40,000 men was hastily despatched to meet them, and took up a position on the banks of the little river Allia, within twelve miles of the city. Here Brennus attacked and defeated them with great slaughter; and if he had pressed on at once, Rome would have lain at his mercy; for the greater part of the beaten army had placed the Tiber between themselves and the conquerors. But the Gauls lingered on the field of battle, mutilating the dead, and drinking to excess. The Romans gained time to occupy and provision the Capitol, though they had not force sufficient to defend their walls; their women and children were sent off to Veii; and when on the third day the Gauls marched in and took possession, they found the city occupied only by those aged patricians who had held high office in the state. Too old to be of service in the little garrison, and too proud to fly, they had all solemnly devoted themselves to death, and sat each in the porch of

his house, in full official robes, awaiting the invaders. For a while these withheld their hands from them, out of awe and reverence; but the ruder passions soon prevailed, and they were all slaughtered. The city was sacked and burnt; but the Capitol itself withstood a siege of more than six months, saved from surprise on one occasion only by the wakefulness of the sacred geese and the courage of Marcus Manlius. (See MANLIUS.) At last the Gauls consented to accept a ransom of a thousand pounds of gold. As it was being weighed out the Roman tribune complained of some unfairness. Brennus at once threw his heavy sword into the scale; and when asked the meaning of the act, replied that it meant "*Væ victis*"—"the weakest must go to the wall." The Gauls returned home with their plunder, leaving Rome in a condition from which she took long to recover. A later legend, most probably an invention, represents Camillus as having suddenly appeared with an avenging army at the moment when the gold was being weighed, and having defeated and cut to pieces Brennus and all his host (Livy, v. 49).

The second Celtic chief who bears the name of Brennus in history is said to have been one of the leaders of an inroad made by the Gauls from the east of the Adriatic into Thrace and Macedonia, 280 B.C., when they defeated and slew Ptolemy Ceraunus, then king of Macedonia. Whether Brennus took part in this first invasion or not is uncertain; but its success, and the rich spoils brought home, led him to urge his countrymen to a second expedition, when he marched with an army of 150,000 foot and 60,000 horse through Macedonia, defeating such forces as were brought against him, and passing thence into Thessaly, ravaging as he went, until he reached the historic pass of Thermopylæ. To this point the united forces of the Northern Greeks—Athenians, Phocians, Boeotians, and Ætolians—had fallen back; and here the Greeks a second time held their foreign invaders in check for many days, and a second time had their rear turned, owing to the treachery of some of the natives, by the same path which had been discovered to the Persians two hundred years before. Their land force, however, succeeded in getting on board the Athenian fleet, which was lying off the shore to co-operate with them. Brennus and his Gauls marched on to attack Delphi, of whose sacred treasures they had heard much. But the little force which the Delphians and their neighbours had collected—about 4000 men—favoured by the strength of their position, made a gallant and successful defence. With or without the help of Apollo, who is said to have come to the aid of his sanctuary, they rolled down rocks upon the close ranks of their enemies as they crowded into the defile, and showered missiles on them from their vantage ground. A thunderstorm, with hail and intense cold, increased their confusion, and when Brennus himself was wounded they took to flight, pursued by the Greeks all the way back to Thermopylæ. Brennus killed himself "unable to endure the pain of his wounds," says Justin, more probably determined not to return home defeated. Few of the invading force eventually escaped.

BRENTANO, CLEMENS, German dramatist and novelist, was born at Frankfort-on-the-Maine in 1777. His sister Elizabeth was the well-known Bettina von Arnim, Goethe's correspondent. He studied at Jena, and afterwards resided in Heidelberg, Vienna, and Berlin, leading a somewhat restless and unsettled life. In 1818 his disgust with all mundane affairs reached such a height that he withdrew from ordinary life and lived in the strictest seclusion at Dülmen. This continued for six years; the latter part of his life he spent in Ratisbon, Frankfort, and Munich. He died at Aschaffenburg 28th July 1842. Brentano belongs to the romantic school of German poetry, and his works, like all others of that class, are marked by excess of

fantastic imagery and by abrupt, bizarre modes of expression. His first published writings consisted of satires and poetical dramas (*Satiren und Poetische Spiele*, 1800); of his later dramas the best are *Ponce de Léon*, 1804, and *Victoria*, 1817; of his poems the best is *Die Gründung Prags*, 1816. On the whole his finest work is the short tale, or novelette, *Geschichte vom braven Kaspar und dem schönen Annerl*, a very perfect little piece, which has been translated into English. Brentano also assisted Ludwig Achim von Arnim, his brother-in-law, in the collection of the tales and poems forming *Des Knaben Wunderhorn*, 1800-8. The collected works appeared at Frankfurt in 1852.

BRENTFORD, a town of England, in the county of Middlesex, 8 miles west of London, on a loop line of the South-Western Railway, in 51° 28' N. lat. and 0° 20' W. long. It is divided by the River Brent into two parts, known as Old and New Brentford (the former the larger of the two), and is separated from Kew by the Thames. The Grand Junction Canal joins the Brent some miles further up, so that the town has extensive water communication, and is enabled to maintain a considerable trade. Among its manufacturing establishments are gin-distilleries, a brewery, malt-kilns, soap-works, saw-mills, and colour-works. The Grand Junction Water-works, which supply the west end of London, are stationed here, the great stand-pipe, 226 feet high, forming a striking tower-like structure. Market-gardening is largely carried on in the neighbourhood, and there is a weekly market which dates from the time of Edward I. The elections for the county of Middlesex are held in the town. Its population in 1871 was 11,091.

In 1016 Brentford, or, as it was often called, Braynford, was the scene of a great defeat inflicted on the Danes by Edmund Ironside. In 1280 a toll was granted by Edward I. for the construction of a bridge across the river, and in the reign of Henry VI. a hospital of the Nine Orders of Angels was founded near its Western side. In 1642 a battle was fought here between the royalists and the parliamentary forces, for his services in which the Scotsman Ruthven was made earl of Brentford, a title afterwards conferred on Marshal Schomberg. Brentford was during the 16th and 17th centuries a favourite resort of the London citizens; and its inn of the Three Pigeons, which was kept for a time by John Lowin, one of the first actors of Shakespeare's plays, has been frequently alluded to by the dramatists of the period. We have also Shakespeare's "Fat Woman of Brentford" in the *Merry Wives of Windsor*, "Gillian of Brentford" in *Westward Ho*, and various other references in old plays. Thomson, in his *Castle of Indolence*, refers to the pigs for which the town was formerly famous—

"E'en so through Brentford town, a town of mud,
An herd of bristly swine is pricked along."

The two kings of Brentford, so well known from Cowper's allusion, seem to owe their mythical existence to Buckingham's *Rehearsal*, where Bayes prides himself on the skill of his plot, in which he supposes "two kings to be of the same place, as for example at Brentford." See *Athenæum*, 1847, p. 1196; and *Notes and Queries*, 2d ser. vol. viii.

BRESCIA, or **BRESCIANO**, a province of Italy, in Lombardy, bounded on the N.W. by Bergamo, N.E. by Tyrol, E. by Verona, from which it is separated by the Lago di Garda, S.E. by Mantua, and S.W. by Cremona. Its area is rather more than 1643 square miles. The northern part, or about one-third, is occupied by a chain of mountains which belong to the Rhaetian Alps; the remainder forms part of the great plain of Lombardy, and shares in its general fertility. The principal rivers, all tributaries or sub-tributaries of the Po, are the Oglio, the Mella, and the Chiese. Corn, flax, hemp, the olive, and the vine are extensively cultivated, and in some districts the traveller passes for miles through the midst of orchards. The mountainous parts, and especially the valley of Trompia, yield iron, copper, marble, alabaster, and granite. The manufactures consist principally of silk, woollen, linen, and cotton goods, iron, steel, and copper wares, glass, and

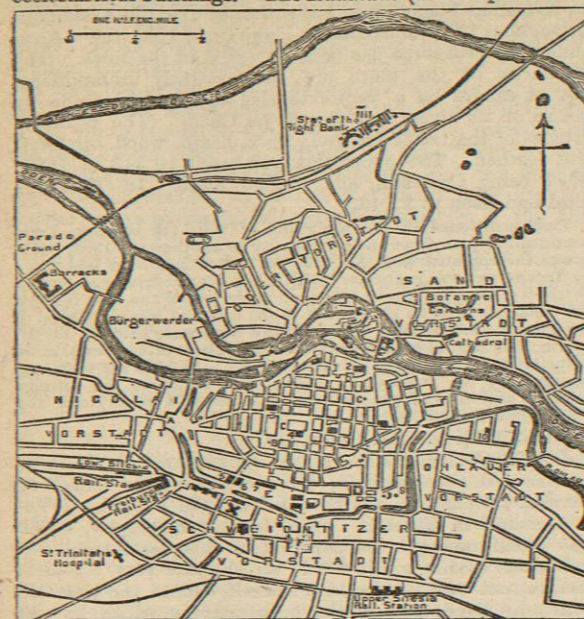
paper. Among the principal townships are Rovato, Chiari, Orzinuovi, Monte-Chiaro, Salo, and Ponte-vico. Population in 1871, 456,023.

BRESCIA, the capital of the above province, is situated between the Mella and the Garza, about 155 miles by rail from Turin, in 45° 32' N. lat. and 10° 14' E. long. It lies at the foot of a spur of the Alps, on the summit of which is a fine old castle formerly known as the Falcon of Lombardy. The town is well built, has fine arcaded streets, and compares favourably in point of cleanliness with other cities in the North of Italy; but it has hardly so many buildings of first-class importance. The old cathedral, a remarkable specimen of the circular form, is sadly disfigured and neglected, and the new cathedral by its side (1604-1825), though built of white marble, is of little architectural merit, St. Afra and San Francesco being more worthy of notice. The Broletto, or old palace of the republic, dating originally from the 12th or 13th century, is a large and interesting building; but it has suffered greatly by successive alterations. The episcopal palace contains an extensive public library, consisting principally of the books and manuscripts—many of great antiquity and value—bequeathed to the city by Cardinal Quirini in 1750. There is an exceptionally rich collection of both mediæval and classical antiquities, preserved in a beautiful Roman building, usually known as the Temple of Hercules, built by Vespasian and excavated in 1822; and throughout the numerous churches and mansions of the city are to be found many of the masterpieces of Italian art. Among the other buildings are the Loggia or communal palace erected in 1508, a theatre, a hospital, a lyceum, and various public fountains. The botanical gardens are worthy of notice. Brescia is a busy town. Its arms and cutlery have been famous for centuries; whole streets are occupied by coppersmiths; silk, woollen, and linen goods, paper, leather, and oil are manufactured; and an extensive transit-trade is carried on. The population in 1871 was 38,906.

Brescia, the ancient *Brixia*, is supposed to have been founded by the Etruscans. It was afterwards a town of the Cenomani, and, finally, a Roman free town. After the fall of the empire it was several times pillaged by the barbarians, especially by Attila in 452. From the Lombards, under whom it was the capital of a duchy, it passed to the Franks. It was made a free imperial city by Otto the Great, and shared and suffered in the contests between the Guelphs and Ghibellines. It then fell into the power of the Signiors of Verona, and in 1378 into the hands of the Milanese. It was taken in 1426 by Carmagnola the Venetian general; besieged by the Milanese general Piccinino in 1483, but assigned to the Venetians by Pope Martin V.; surrendered by the inhabitants to the French after the battle of Agnano (1509); taken in 1512 by the Venetian general, Andrea Gritti; delivered by Gaston de Foix; and besieged again in 1573, 1575, and 1576. It remained under the Venetian dominion till the dissolution of the republic. It was the capital of the department of Mella during the existence of the Cisalpine republic and the Napoleonic kingdom of Italy, and fell in 1814 under the yoke of Austria. In the revolution of 1849 the inhabitants rose in arms, but were overpowered, after a destructive siege, by the troops of Haynau. In the war of 1859 it again sided with the patriotic party, and followed the destinies of the rest of Lombardy. Brescia has at various times suffered severely from pestilence and epidemics. It was the birthplace of Tartaglia the mathematician and the writer Mazzuchelli.

BRESLAU, a city of Prussia, capital of the government of Silesia, is situated mainly on the left but partly also on the right bank of the Oder, at the influx of the Ohlau, and on the railway from Berlin to Vienna, 190 miles S.E. of the former city. The latitude of the observatory is 51° 6' 56" N., and its longitude 17° 2' 18" E. The city consists of a new and an old town, and a number of extensive suburbs stretching out in all directions. The fortifications, which were dismantled shortly after 1813, have given place to beautiful promenades; and even in the older parts of the town, where the streets are generally narrow, there are

several open spaces of considerable area. The old cathedral (founded in the 12th century, and recently restored), the Catholic church of the Holy Cross, the Protestant church of St. Elizabeth—with its lofty tower, the Jewish synagogue, and the bishop's palace are the principal ecclesiastical buildings. The *Rathhaus* (a fine specimen of



Plan of Breslau.

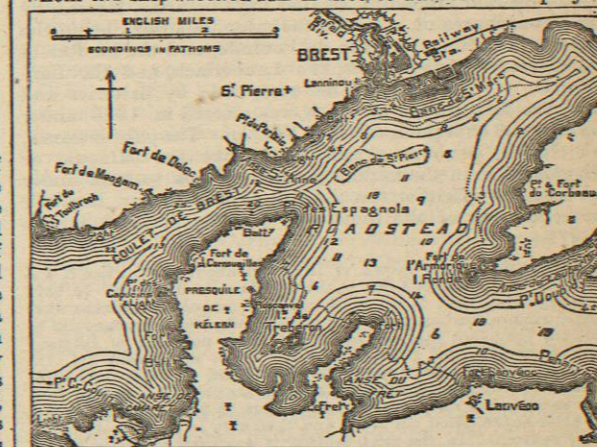
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|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| A. Königs Platz. | 3. St. Elizabeth's Church (Protestant). |
| B. Blücher Platz and monument. | 4. Rathhaus. |
| C. Ring Platz. | 5. Börse (Exchange). |
| D. Ritter Platz. | 6. Ständehaus. |
| E. Exercier Platz (Parade Ground). | 7. Royal Palace. |
| F. Tauenzien Platz. | 8. Synagogue. |
| G. New Market. | 9. Lieblichs Höhe. |
| H. University. | 10. Lobe Theatre. |
| I. Court-house. | |

the architecture of the 14th century), the townhouse (of quite recent erection), the royal palace (now used as the Government buildings), the chamber of the states, the exchange, the barracks, the theatre, the post-office, and the new court-house and prison are the more important of the secular structures. At the head of the educational institutions for which Breslau is celebrated stands the university, which was founded in 1702 by Leopold I. as a Jesuit college, and was greatly extended by the incorporation of the university of Frankfort-on-Oder in 1811. Its library contains upwards of 300,000 volumes; and among its auxiliary establishments are botanic gardens, an observatory, an anatomical and an antiquarian museum. In 1873 its professors and teachers numbered 103, and its students 962, the majority in the Faculty of Arts. Among the minor institutions are four gymnasiums, a higher girls' school, a normal school, a school of arts and manufactures, several orphanages, a deaf and dumb institute, and a blind asylum. There are also seventeen hospitals and numerous charitable foundations. The town is the seat of several provincial courts, a chamber of mines, an independent Roman Catholic bishopric, and a Protestant consistory. Its manufactures, which are both varied and extensive, comprise machinery and tools, railway carriages, cast-iron goods, gold and silver work, carpets, woollen cloth, cotton goods, paper, and musical instruments. A very active export trade is carried on; and a number of large fairs for particular kinds of goods are held every year. The popula-

tion, which was 110,702 in 1849, had increased to 171,926 in 1867, when about 33 per cent. was Roman Catholic, 58 Protestant, and 7 Jewish. In 1871 the total amounted to 207,977.

Breslau (Latin, *Vratislavia*) is first mentioned by Ditmar, the chronicler, in 1000 A.D.; and its foundation seems to be of slightly earlier date. It became the seat of a bishop in 1052, and the capital of an independent duchy in 1163. In 1241 it was reduced to ashes by the Mongolian invaders; but it soon recovered its prosperity, and, its population becoming largely Germanized, it joined the Hanseatic League in 1261. On the death of Henry, the last duke, in 1335, the lordship of Breslau passed to the Bohemian crown; and several of the Bohemian kings bestowed numerous privileges on the city, which began to extend its commerce in all directions,—to Russia and Tartary, Greece and Italy, the Netherlands and Flanders. Under the stimulus of prosperity the citizens soon showed themselves disposed to assert their independence, both against the aristocratic element within their walls, and against their feudal superiors without. From 1482 to 1490 they suffered severely from the oppressive measures of Stein, the minister of their king, Corvinus of Hungary, whom they had preferred to George Podiebrad of Bohemia. After the battle of Mohacz, Breslau passed with the rest of Silesia to the house of Austria, in whose possession it continued till 1741, when it was captured by Frederick II. of Prussia. In 1757 it was retaken by the Austrians under Charles of Lorraine, but in the same year the Prussians again made good their claim by force of arms, and took no fewer than 21,000 men prisoners. The attempt of Laudon in 1760 to surprise the city was a failure. It was forced, however, after a lengthened siege to yield to the French in 1806-7. Their subsequent investment of it in 1813 was interrupted by the peace.

BREST, a strongly fortified seaport town of France, capital of an arrondissement in the department of Finistère, in 48° 22' N. lat. and 4° 32' W. long. It is situated to the north of a magnificent land-locked bay, and occupies the slopes of two hills divided by the River Penfeld,—the part of the town on the left bank being regarded as Brest proper, while the part on the right is known as Recouvrance, from the chapel of the Virgin, to whom the shipwrecked sailors used to address their prayers



Roadstead of Brest.

for the recovery of their property. The hill-sides are in some places so steep that the ascent from the lower to the upper town has to be effected by flights of stairs; and the second or third story of one house is often on a level with the ground story of the next. The town proper has three long parallel streets, of which the chief bears the name of Rue de Siam, in honour of the Siamese embassy sent to Louis XIV., and terminates at the remarkable swing-bridge, or *Pont Impérial*, constructed in 1861, which crosses the mouth of the Penfeld. Running along the shore to the south of the town is the Cours d'Ajot, one of the finest promenades of its kind in France, named after the engineer who constructed it. It is planted with trees and

adorned with two marble statues presented by the "Gouvernement Consulaire, Le XIII. Germinal, An IX." Brest possesses comparatively few buildings of importance, with the exception of those connected with the great naval establishment. The church of the priory of the Seven Saints, the church of St Louis, the old castle with its seven massive towers (dating in part from the 13th century), the exchange, the town-house, the civil hospital, and the theatre are the chief. The great convict establishment, which formerly held some 3000 prisoners, was vacated in 1860, and is now used as a store-house. The Government dockyard is very extensive, and contains a sail-loft, a slop-shop, a ropery, a foundry and steam-factory, seamen's barracks (known as *La Cayenne*), and three dry-docks partly excavated in the hill-side. The Hôpital de la Marine, built between 1824 and 1835, contains 26 wards, each with 53 beds, and is under the management of a large band of sisters of mercy. Among the minor establishments are a lyceum, a school of navigation, a medicô-chirurgical school, an observatory, a botanical garden, a public library of 25,000 volumes, and two others of 18,000 and 10,000. The manufactures are few, and the trade is of small extent considering the excellence of the ports. The former are chiefly leather, wax-cloth, paper, and rope; and the latter deals mainly in grain, beer, brandy, and fish. Napoleon III. did much for the development of the commerce of Brest, though his extensive plans for a new port, on which £600,000 were expended during his reign, have been only partially carried out. It lies at the foot of the Cours d'Ajot, and has thus much greater scope for any necessary development than the old port, which was formed by the mouth of the Penfeld. The roadstead of Brest, which is in some places three miles broad, and has an area of 15 square leagues, is formed by the promontory of Finistère on the N. and that of Kêlern on the S. It breaks up into numerous smaller bays or arms, formed by the embouchures of streams, the most important being the Anse de Kêlern, the Anse de Poulmie, and the mouths of the Châteaulin, the Dolas, the Lauberlach, and the Landerneau. It is defended on every side by batteries and forts, the first system of which was erected in 1680 under the personal superintendence of Vauban. The only entrance, the Goulet, is about a mile wide; but the Mingant or Mingam rock in the middle compels vessels to pass under the batteries of either the one side or the other. In 1851 the population of the town was 36,500; in 1871 it was 66,272.

Nothing definite is known of Brest till about 1040, when it was ceded by the Count of Léon to the first duke of Brittany. In 1372 duke John IV. gave it up to the English on condition that they should restore it when peace was proclaimed. So important did he consider the place that he declared, "He is not duke of Brittany who is not lord of Brest." On the death of Edward III. the castle was made over to the dukes; but when war was once more declared between France and England, an English garrison took possession again, and repelled every effort to dislodge it; nor was the place surrendered till 1397, and then only in consideration of a heavy ransom. In the next century it was again captured by the English, and retaken by the French; and by the marriage of Louis XII. with Anne of Brittany, it passed to the French crown. The advantages of the situation for a seaport town were first recognized by Richelieu, who, in 1631, constructed a harbour with wooden wharves, which soon became a station of the French navy. Colbert changed the wooden wharves for masonry, and otherwise improved the port, and Vauban's fortifications followed in 1680-88. In 1694 an English squadron, under Berkeley, was miserably defeated in attempting a landing; but in 1794, during the revolutionary war, the French fleet, under Villaret de Joyeuse, was as thoroughly beaten in the same place by the English admiral Howe.

BREST-LITOVSK (in Polish BRZESC, and in the chronicles BERESTIE and BERESTOFF), a town of Russia, in the government of Grodno, and 131 miles S. from the city of that name. in 52° 5' N. lat. and 23° 39' E. long.; at the

junction of the navigable river Mukhovetz with the Bug. It contains two or three Greek churches, a Roman Catholic church, a Jewish synagogue—which was regarded in the 16th century as the first in Europe, a monastery, a public hospital, a Jewish almshouse, an important provision storehouse, a custom-house, and a wharf. Brest is the seat of an Armenian bishop, who has authority over the Armenians throughout the whole country; and since 1841 the "Alexander" cadette-corps has been stationed in the town. The industries of the place are comparatively unimportant, but it carries on a very extensive and varied trade by means of its rivers and the Royal Canal. The principal articles of the traffic are grain, flax, hemp, wood, birch-tar, and leather. The population numbered 19,343 in 1860, 3394 being Catholics, and 10,320 Jews. In 1867 the total had risen to 22,493.

First mentioned in the beginning of the 11th century, Brest continued to pass from one principality to another till 1392, when it was incorporated with Poland. In 1241 it had been laid waste by Tatars, and was not restored till 1275; its suburbs were buried by the Teutonic knights in 1379, and in the end of the 15th century the whole town met a similar fate at the hands of Mengly-Gherai of the Crimea. In the reign of Sigismund diets were held in Brest; and in 1594 and 1596, it was the meeting-place of two remarkable councils of the bishops of Western Russia. In 1706 the town was captured by the Swedes; in 1793 it was added to the Russian empire; and in 1794 was the scene of Suwaroff's victory over the Polish general Sierakofsky.

BRETAGNE. See BRITANNY.

BRETSCHNEIDER, KARL GOTTLIEB, an eminent scholar and theologian, of the more moderate school of German rationalism, was born on the 11th February 1776, at Gersdorf in Saxony. From his autobiography, which was found amongst his papers after his death, and was published by his son in 1851, we obtain a very complete picture, not only of the man himself, but of the times in which he lived, and of the influences by which he was surrounded. His father was pastor of the village of Gersdorf, but was translated to Lichtenstein when Bretschneider was only four years of age. He gives an interesting account of his early childhood and school training, of the impression produced upon him by his father's dignified bearing, and of the agricultural pursuits and piscatorial amusements by which the clerical and pædæutic labours of the latter were diversified. On the death of his father, in 1789, he was sent to Hohenstein to reside with his uncle Tag. It is in keeping with the mental characteristics of the man who afterwards became famous for that cool and deliberate exercise of the reason on theological subjects, which has led many to place him among the extreme school of rationalist divines, to find him at the early age of fourteen, when he was confirmed by the pastor of Hohenstein, criticizing the religious teaching of his instructor, and pointing out that the order in which the various doctrines were taught from the Dresden catechism was not such as could commend itself to his own experience, or the course of moral education which he had undergone. He remarks that he deems the circumstance worthy of mention, "because it was the first time that, having turned his thoughts to the subject of religion, he could not persuade himself of the truth of what he was taught, and that a similar process may be going on in the minds of many a youth in similar circumstances, without the instructor being at all aware of it."

In 1790 Bretschneider was sent to the lyceum of Chemnitz, where the celebrated Heyne had received his classical education. Here he remained four years. The account which he gives of the state of education in this school (which had greatly fallen away from its former reputation), and of the capacity of his instructors, is interesting, and is strikingly illustrative of the growth of that critical faculty which became so prominent a feature

in his character. It was while at Chemnitz that Bretschneider became acquainted with the *Wolfenbüttel Fragments*. The corrector Lessing, a brother of the great Lessing, who was the editor of the *Fragments*, and who was believed for some time to be their real author, was inconsiderate enough to warn his pupils against reading any of his brother's works. The natural result followed. The prohibited books were eagerly sought after, and perused with avidity. Contrary, however, to what might at first have been expected, the perusal of the *Fragments* made no impression on the mind of Bretschneider. The independent judgment of the youth is seen in the criticism which he passed upon the book:—"I read the portion," he says, "which treats of the miracles of the Old Testament. But the reading made no impression upon me, for Christianity did not appear to me to rest at all upon the miracles of the Old Testament."

In 1794 Bretschneider entered the university of Leipsic, having resolved to devote himself to the study of theology. His resolution to adopt this profession was purely the result of circumstances. "His father had expressed a wish that he should do so, and all his mother's brothers were clergymen." The lectures which he attended were those of Platner on philosophy, of Keil and Beck and Burscher on various branches of theology, and of Meisner and Kuhnöl on Hebrew. His autobiography contains minute and severe criticisms upon the various professors, in which the defects and mistakes of their teaching are pointed out. One or two of these may be quoted as indicative of the mental tendencies of the writer. Speaking of the lectures on philosophy, and after pointing out the defects of Platner's method, he says,—"Even at this early period, I learned from experience the impossibility for me of adopting any doctrine, except on condition of its standing fully and clearly developed before me,—a peculiarity which has adhered to me during my whole life, and has always preserved me from mysticism and the theology of feeling." Again, in referring to the lectures of Beck on the exegesis of Scripture, the future lexicographer of the New Testament appears in the remark,—"I well remember how burdensome the word *πνεῦμα* and *πνεῦμα ἄγιον* became, which he explained now as expressing *sensum christianum*, and now as *fervorem animi*, and then, again, as something else. I felt that these explanations were not correct, and consequently could not accept them." With the lectures of Keil, the successor of the celebrated Morus, Bretschneider appears to have been better satisfied. He adopted his principle of the historical interpretation of Scripture, and entered, as he says, "with the greatest zeal upon the study of the Jewish theology and its *usus loquendi*. In consequence of this, a multitude of arbitrary explanations were set aside, and neither for Teller's dictionary, nor for other modern interpretations, in which new ideas are attached to the words of Scripture, could I acquire the least relish. The efforts to explain away the devil from the Bible, to reduce the passages respecting Christ's pre-existence and higher nature to a moral sense, to make the miracles of the New Testament by exegetical subtleties mere natural events, were odious to me as denials of divine truth."

After spending four years at Leipsic, Bretschneider accepted the office of tutor to the sons of a Saxon nobleman, a post which he retained for some years. During this period his resolution to make the church his profession seems to have been somewhat shaken. His difficulties, however, were removed by reading the observations on assent to creeds in Reinhard's *Christian Ethics*, and also "by the thought that many great and estimable theologians varied widely from the church faith, and that in general society, and in the learned world, the *enlightened* theologians (for the term

rationalist was not common then) stood in the highest repute, and were regarded with universal respect. This state of things I supposed would be permanent, and I could not then have believed that only a single generation would pass before the enlightened theologians would be assailed with such violence and bespattered with filth as they now are. Had I been able to foresee this, I should certainly have devoted myself to the study of law."

In 1802 Bretschneider passed with great distinction the examination for *candidatus theologiae*, and on that occasion attracted the favourable regard of Reinhard, the celebrated court-preacher at Dresden, who became his warm friend and patron during the remainder of his life. In 1804 Bretschneider established himself as *privat-docent* at the university of Wittenberg, where he remained about two years, giving lectures on philosophy and theology. It was during this time that he began his career as an author. The first production of his pen was his *Dogmatische Entwicklung aller in der Dogmatik vorkommenden Begriffe nach den Symbolischen Schriften der evangelisch-lutherischen und reformirten Kirche und den wichtigsten dogmatischen Lehrbüchern ihrer Theologen, nebst der Literatur vorzüglich der neueren über alle Theile der Dogmatik*, which appeared in 1805, and reached a fourth edition in 1841, and which is distinguished for the complete account which it contains of the literature of the subject. This was followed by other works, among which may be named an edition of the book of Ecclesiasticus with a commentary in Latin, which was intended to form part of a larger work upon the Apocryphal books of the Old Testament,—an undertaking that was never carried out. The advance of the French army under Napoleon into Prussia after the battle of Austerlitz determined Bretschneider to leave Wittenberg, which as a fortified town was liable to be exposed to all the horrors of a siege. He accordingly abandoned his university career, and, through the good offices of his friend Reinhard, obtained the pastorate of Schneeberg in Saxony, on the duties of which he entered in March 1807. In 1808 he was promoted to the office of superintendent of the church of Annaberg, which, in addition to the properly clerical duties which belonged to the charge, involved the consideration of many matters belonging to the department of ecclesiastical law, which had to be decided in accordance with the canon law of Saxony. Bretschneider, however, devoted himself energetically to his duties. "The *Corpus Juris Saxonici*," he says, "was almost always on my table, and I soon became perfectly acquainted with its contents." In Annaberg he passed eight years, during which time he twice declined the offer of a professorship of theology, once from Königsberg and once from Berlin. The climate, however, did not agree with him, and in consequence of the demands made upon him by the discharge of his official duties, he was prevented from devoting sufficient time to his theological studies. He, therefore, began to desire a change. With a view to this, he publicly took the degree of doctor of theology in Wittenberg in August 1812. The subject of his thesis was "*Capita Theologiae Judaicae*," as gathered chiefly from the writings of Josephus. It was the last public doctorate of the kind, and cost him 300 thalers (£45), "an expense," he remarks, "which he often regretted, as the title was shortly after made common." It may have been some little consolation to him that the people of Annaberg on his return commemorated his promotion in a number of poems composed for the occasion.

The desired change came at last. In 1816, on the death of Loeffler, general superintendent at Gotha, he was appointed, on the recommendation of Von Ammon, Reinhard's successor at Dresden, to the vacant post, in which he remained until his death in 1848. This was the